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ABSTRACT

Drawing from the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of 1972 high school seniors, a study was conducted to examine factors that determine the college destination of black students. Among the variables considered were: (1) personal characteristics of students (family background, standardized test performance, educational aspirations, perceptions about colleges and universities); (2) students' academic and pre college program experiences (curriculum placement, high school class rank, math and science preparation, participation in Upward Bound or Talent Search); (3) influence of significant others; and (4) the characteristics (region, racial composition) of high schools that black students attend. Evaluated were the effects of these variables on the enrollment of black students in two year versus four year colleges, public versus private colleges, predominantly black versus predominantly white colleges, and highly selective versus less selective colleges. This report provides the results of multivariate analysis of the data collected and briefly discusses policy implications of the findings. (Author/GC)

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Determining the College Destination of Black Students

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Southern Education Foundation

ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30308

Determining the College Destination of Black Students

by

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July, 1981

FOREWORD

The Southern Education Foundation and the family philanthropies which preceded it have had a special and continuing interest in the education of black Americans for more than a hundred years. The Foundation has been concerned particularly with programs aimed at increasing and improving higher education opportunities for blacks in the South.

In April, 1974, the SEF Board of Directors established an in-house project, the Higher Education Program, to address issues which were surfacing as a result of the then Adams v. Richardson case. Under this higher education component, the Foundation supported coalitions formed by citizens to monitor state desegregation plans, sponsored conferences and workshops, published papers, monographs and documents, and awarded general grants which focused specifically on achieving equity in higher education in the ten states affected by the Adams case.

In September, 1978, the Higher Education Program proposed concentrating a major portion of its allocation on a Research Task Force which was formed to plan a research agenda for the Foundation and to commission research projects. This body of seven educators has commissioned ten studies since its inception; this document is presented as the fifth of the research efforts. The first report, A STUDY OF TITLE III IMPACT ON HISTORICALLY BLACK INSTITUTIONS, written by Dr. Cameron Fincher, Institute of Higher Education, University of Georgia, is available to the public at no cost. The following reports may be purchased from the Foundation for $3.00 each: RECENT COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ENROLLMENT PATTERNS OF BLACK STUDENTS IN STATES AFFECTED BY ADAMS-CALIFANO LITIGATION, written by Dr. William Brazziel, University of Connecticut, and Marian Brazziel, Mansfield Center, Connecticut; ACCESS, RETENTION AND PROGRESSION OF BLACK STUDENTS THROUGH THE TWO-TIER FLORIDA HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM, by Dr. Charles M. Grigg, Florida State University; and BLACK EMPLOYEES IN TRADITIONALLY WHITE INSTITUTIONS IN THE ADAMS STATES: 1975 to 1977, by Dr. Anne S. Pruitt, Ohio State University.

Copies of this report and subsequent publications will be available at a cost of $4.00 each.

Thank you.

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Chapter I

The Transition of Black Students from High School to College: The Importance of Where They Go

Over the past two decades a substantial proportion of black students have made the transition from high school to college. For example, in 1970, 21 percent of the black population between the ages of 18 and 24 were enrolled in some type of college as compared to only 13 percent in 1960 (National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education, 1979). In addition, statistical trends show that between 1973 and 1979 black enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities increased more rapidly than white enrollment.

The progress that blacks have made in gaining access to undergraduate institutions has been highlighted by the news media and in technical reports and research documents. However, another critical issue which has received less attention concerns where black students go to college. As Alexander Astin (1965) notes, the college destination of students—"where they go"— is just as important as the decision "to go" and the ability to obtain access to postsecondary schooling. This report examines factors which determine the college destinations of black students.

Where black students go to pursue their college careers and fulfill their educational aspirations is consequential for several reasons. First, investing in higher education remains the major alternative for upward mobility for most blacks. Second, black students' ability to obtain access to graduate and professional education largely depends on the type and quality of their undergraduate education. For example, the fact that a larger proportion of black undergraduates attend two-year than four-year colleges has major implications for their subsequent educational attainment. Black students must make the transition from two-year to four-year colleges to qualify for advanced higher education. Third, the problems of prompt graduation (Thomas, 1981a) and retention (Braddock, 1981a) for blacks in predominantly white colleges and universities also affect their access to graduate and

professional education.

Past Research on the Educational Attainment of Blacks

Until recently, most major investigations of students' access to college and educational attainment were based on white samples (Sewell and Shah, 1967; Sewell, Haller and Portes, 1969; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf, 1970; Hauser, 1971). Recent investigations involving black samples generally fall into three broad categories. First, several large-scale descriptive studies have examined black student enrollments and degree attainment at various levels of higher education, and their representation within major fields throughout higher education (Brown and Stent, 1977; Mingle, 1979; Thomas, 1980; Griggs, 1980; Brazziel and Brazziel, 1980; Blackwell, 1981; Thomas, McPartland and Gottfredson, 1981; Braddock, 1981b). These investigations show that black students are underrepresented with reference to access and degree attainment at the graduate and professional levels. In addition, they reveal that black students are underrepresented in the hard and technical sciences (i.e., the natural sciences, math, and engineering) and in advanced professional fields (law, medicine, dentistry).

Second, descriptive studies on the experiences of black students in predominantly white colleges have been conducted (Willie and McCord, 1972; Epps, 1972; Boyd, 1977; Peterson et al., 1978; Smith, 1980). This research shows that the academic and social experiences of black students on predominantly white campuses vary depending upon their family and academic background and their previous experience in predominantly white environments. Most of these studies have also reported that many black students encounter some adjustment problems (i.e., alienation, academic difficulties, teacher bias) in predominantly white colleges.

The third group of studies on black college students has investigated race and sex interactions affecting the educational attainment process (Portes and Wilson, 1976; Thomas, Alexander and Eckland, 1979; Thomas, 1981a). The major concerns of these studies have

been: (1) the number of years of schooling obtained; (2) the transition of students from high school to college; and (3) the prompt graduation of students in four-year colleges. The results from these investigations have shown significant race and sex interactions which suggest that factors influencing the college entry and educational attainment process vary for blacks and whites and males and females.

Research on the Question of Who Goes Where

The interrelated issues of who goes where to college and what factors determine the college destination of students have not been systematically addressed for black students. Examining these issues for whites, Alexander Astin (1965) observed that American colleges and universities differ substantially in the types of students they enroll. Astin employed colleges as the unit of analysis and examined student characteristics within various institutions to determine why students were enrolled in their respective colleges. He found a high correlation between the characteristics of entering freshmen and the colleges and universities they attended, and concluded that where students attend college is a function of two interrelated decision-making processes. First, students decide to choose a college or university that meets their personal aspirations and goals and that satisfies the expectations of their peers, family, teachers, and counselors. Then college admission officers decide to accept or reject applicants based on criteria that include academic credentials, goals and aspirations of the students, the needs and goals of their college or university, and the quality and quantity of their available pool of applicants.

In this study, the student rather than the institution is the unit of analysis. We examine a number of factors that have been identified in past research on whites for their possible influence on the types of colleges that black students attend. These variables include the personal characteristics of students (family background, standardized test performance, educational aspirations, perceptions about college and universities), their academic and pre-college program experiences within high school (their curriculum placement, high

school rank, course preparation in math and science, and their participation in Upward Bound or Talent Search), the influence of significant others, and the characteristics of the high schools (region, racial composition) that black students attend.

The Present College Destination Measures and their Relevance for Black Students

College destination is treated in this study as four separate dependent variables. It is defined as black student enrollment in: (1) two-year versus four-year colleges; (2) public versus private colleges, (3) predominantly black versus predominantly white colleges, and (4) highly selective colleges versus colleges of lower selectivity.

Two-Year versus Four-Year College Attendance

We have noted that a large percentage of black students in higher education are in two-year colleges. In 1976, 45 percent of black college students were enrolled in two-year colleges (Thomas, 1980). As the availability of financial aid for black students decreases and admissions standards to four-year colleges and universities become more stringent, two-year colleges may absorb an even greater proportion of black students.

The question has been raised as to whether two-year colleges perpetuate inequality in education for minorities (Olivas, 1979; Karabel, 1972). Studies that lend some support to this argument indicate that: (a) two-year college students have lower retention rates than four-year college students and that (b) most two-year college students are not likely to transfer to four-year colleges (Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, 1976; Astin, 1977). Allen and Gutteridge (1978) also reported that in the short and long run, two-year college graduates are less successful in the labor market than four-year graduates.

Public versus Private College Effects

The greatest expansion in U.S. higher education has taken place in public colleges and universities (Olivas, 1979; Astin, 1977). Astin (1977) and Wilms (1980) have reported some interesting differences in student characteristics and outcomes for students in public and private colleges. For example, Astin noted that students in private colleges have higher scholas-

tic achievement and higher self-esteem than students in public colleges. He also found that private college students experienced greater contact and interaction with faculty members, were more satisfied with classroom instruction and the reputation of their colleges, and were more likely to pursue careers in science than public college students. Many of the effects that Astin found are attributed to the relatively smaller size of the private colleges which permits greater opportunity for student-faculty interaction than is typically possible in the larger public universities.

Wilms (1980) examined the retention and job placement patterns for public and private two-year college students. He observed that private two-year colleges were more successful in retaining students and providing them with entry-level employment than public two-year institutions. Within two and one-half years, 69 percent of the private school students in the Wilms study had graduated versus 46 percent of the public school students. Private school two-year college students also earned more on their first job than their public school peers (Wilms, 1980).

Predominantly Black versus Predominantly White College Attendance

Although the predominantly black colleges continue to graduate a disproportionate percentage of black students in higher education, they presently account for only one-third of black enrollment (Bayer, 1973; Astin and Cross, 1981). The change in the distribution of black students in black colleges has been primarily due to higher education desegregation and to the inability of black colleges to compete effectively in the desegregation process due to inadequate State and Federal financial support. Despite the latter disadvantage, black colleges have been more successful in retaining black students than have predominantly white colleges (Goodrich, 1981; Thomas, 1981a; Braddock, 1981b). However, black students in predominantly white colleges are more likely to be enrolled in the hard and technical sciences (Thomas, 1980) and have better job success than their peers in predominantly black colleges (Crain and McPartland, 1980).

Helen Astin and Cross (1977) and others (Clayton, 1981; Reichard et al., 1981; Boyd, 1981) have reported differences in the characteristics of black students attending predominantly black and white colleges. Black students in predominantly black colleges were more often first generation students and on the average had lower SAT scores and high school grades than blacks in white colleges (Boyd, 1977; Helen Astin and Cross, 1977). Helen Astin and Cross also reported that a higher percentage of blacks in black colleges aspired to the doctorate degree while blacks in white colleges were more likely to aspire to an advanced professional degree (i.e., law, medicine, dentistry).

College Selectivity

Studies on the effects of college selectivity have been based mainly on white samples. Davis (1965) and Astin (1977) noted that one of the strongest effects of college selectivity is on students' undergraduate grade point average (GPA). Students' grade point average is reduced by attending a highly selective college (Davis, 1965; Astin, 1977). Despite the depressing effect of selectivity on GPA, white students in selective colleges had higher completion rates and were more likely to enter graduate and professional schools than students at less selective colleges (Astin, 1977). Students at selective colleges were also found to be more satisfied with their undergraduate experience and with the academic reputation, intellectual climate, and course offerings of their colleges, than were students in less selective institutions.

The extent to which these observations for whites regarding selectivity apply to black undergraduates is not clear. However, Johnson, Smith and Tarnoff (1975) found that at the graduate and professional level blacks in major predominantly white schools experienced academic difficulties and course repetition. Nevertheless, blacks who successfully matriculated in these institutions had more occupational choices than their counterparts in less selective schools.

In this report, we ask what factors are important in determining the enrollment of

black students in two-year versus four-year colleges; public versus private colleges; predominantly black versus predominantly white colleges; and highly selective colleges versus colleges of lower selectivity. The data sets that we employ will enable us to make sex comparisons among blacks and assess the extent to which the independent variables differentially affect the college destination of black males and females. The sample of black students, the data sets, and independent variables employed in the study are described in the next chapter.

Chapter 2

Methodology

Data

As indicated in Chapter One, the student constitutes the basic unit of analysis in this study. However, both student and institutional data are employed. The student data are from the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of the High School Senior Class of 1972. The survey, which is now under the auspices of the National Center of Education Statistics, was conducted to determine what happens to students after they leave high school regarding their educational aspirations, postsecondary education, and occupational experiences.

Student Survey

The original sample design approximated a two-stage probability sample with schools as the first sampling units and students as the second stage unit. The inital Base Year (1972) Survey involved a representative sample of approximately 21,600 twelfth grade males and females (Whites, Blacks, Mexican-Americans, Native Americans, Asian Americans) who were enrolled in some 1200 public, private, and church-affiliated secondary schools within the fifty states of the United States and the District of Columbia. The original sample of selected schools was stratified into 600 strata based on the following criteria: (1) the type of control exerted over the school (public or nonpublic); (2) the geographic division that the school was located in; (3) the number of twelfth grade enrollments; (4) the proximity of the school to institutions of higher education; (5) the percent minority group enrollment; (6) the income level of the community surrounding the school; and (7) the degree of urbanization of the area surrounding the school. In addition, schools that were located in low income areas or that had a high proportion of minority student enrollment were sampled at approximately twice the sampling rate used for the remaining schools in order to obtain an adequate representation of minority students. Schools in the smallest twelfth grade enrollment strata (i.e., less than 300 seniors) were selected with a probability proportional to their

estimated number of senior students and without replacement, while schools in the remaining strata were selected with equal probabilities and without replacement.

Participation

Initial contact with all schools included in the base year sample was made by letters sent to the principals of each school requesting their participation. Of the 1,200 schools that were contacted, 1,044 participated in the base year survey with a resulting student sample of 17,726 (which included approximately 3,119 blacks). Principals at each participating school were asked to appoint a survey administrator whose duty was to collect data for the NLS study.

Subsequent Procedures

Within each cooperating school, a random sample of eighteen twelfth graders and five additional alternate students was drawn from rosters of the senior class which were provided by the schools. The students were sampled with equal probabilities and without replacement within schools. In addition, one or two twelfth grade counselors were randomly selected to complete a questionnaire about guidance activities in the schools. All students who took part in the survey were asked to complete an hour and twenty minute questionnaire which dealt with their post-high school plans, aspirations, family background, and previous educational experiences. Students were also requested to take a sixty-nine minute aptitude test that measured both verbal and nonverbal ability. Additional student data were obtained from school records and from questionnaires completed by guidance counselors.

Subsequent Follow-Up Surveys

Since the 1972 Base Year Survey, four follow-up surveys have been conducted. The First Follow-Up Survey was conducted between October 1973 and April 1974 by the Research Triangle Institute with the assistance of the U.S. Census Bureau. Ninety-four percent of the seniors who participated in the Base Year Survey completed the First Follow-Up Survey (65 percent by mail and 29 percent by personal interview). Second and Third

Follow-Up Surveys were conducted in the Fall of 1974 and 1976. The most recent survey, the Fourth Follow-Up Survey, was conducted in the Fall of 1979.

The subsample of blacks in this study was composed of participants in the Base Year and all subsequent Follow-Up Surveys. Of the 3,119 blacks who participated in the Base Year Survey, approximately 1,613 (52 percent) reported enrollment in some type of post-secondary institution between 1972 and 1979 (about 30 percent were females and 22 percent were males). Thus, the 1,613 subsample of black students who pursued post-secondary schooling constitutes the data base for our analysis.

Institutional Surveys

In addition to the student questionnaire, data on respondents' high schools and colleges are also used in this study. Data on students' high schools were obtained from a School Questionnaire that was administered to principals and/or counselors at the 1,318 participating schools during the Base Year and First Follow-Up Surveys. Data were obtained on some 500 measures which included the racial composition of the high schools, faculty and staff characteristics, and information on school facilities and curricula. Information on the types of colleges that students attended was obtained from the NLS College File and from the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) Survey Data. The NLS College File contained the names of the post-secondary institutions that students attended in 1972 and 1973 and other characteristics of the college (i.e., college selectivity, college control, college type). OCR 1972 data (collected from all U.S. federally-funded colleges and universities) were used to construct institutional measures in cases where the sample size for blacks was appreciably larger than the sample from the NLS college file.

Variables

This section presents the variables in our analysis, preceded by a description of their relevance for black student college destination.

Porter (1974) and others (Hauser, Sewell and Alwin, 1974; Astin, 1977) found that

students with high family status and high test performance are more likely to attend selective colleges and universities and to achieve higher levels of educational attainment than students with low family status and low test performance.

1. Family Socioeconomic Status--The measure of family status used in this study is based on information provided by the respondents on their parents' education and their fathers' occupations. Data on fathers' occupations was coded into the metrics of Duncan's SEI scores.

2. Standardized Test Performance

   A test was administered during the Base-Year which tapped students verbal and nonverbal skills. This test is similar to the college admissions test used by the Educational Testing Service and the American College Testing Program. It consisted of an equally weighted linear composite of four subtests: math, vocabulary, letter groups, and reading.

3. High School Characteristics

   Literature on the influence of high school characteristics shows that in the South, black students from predominantly white high schools are less likely to attend college and less likely to persist through the junior year in four-year colleges than black students from predominantly black high schools (Crain and Mahard, 1978). Also, Braddock and McPartland (1979) reported that black students who had attended desegregated high schools were more likely to attend desegregated colleges than blacks who had attended predominantly black high schools.

   High School Racial Composition - This measure was taken from the School Questionnaire which asked what percentage (ranging from 0 to 100 percent) of the total student body in each school was black.

   High School Region - This variable was also obtained from the School Ques-

tionnaire. State codes were reported for each high school. These codes were subsequently recoded into a Non-South (0), South (1) dichotomy.

4. Student High School Experiences and Achievements

Class rank is one of the major determinants of college access (Portes and Wilson, 1976). For blacks, its impact on college access s stronger than standardized test performance (Thomas, 1979; Thomas, Alexander and Eckland, 1979). Studies have also shown that students in academic curricula are more likely to enter college and attend a four-year college than students in non-academic programs (Grasso and Shea, 1979; Alexander and McDill, 1976; Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, 1976). In addition, Clayton (1981) reported that black students in predominantly black colleges are less likely to have been enrolled in college preparatory programs in high school (only 35 percent) than are black students in predominantly white colleges.

Class Rank - Data on class rank were obtained during the Base-Year Survey from the high schools' Student Record Information Files. The item was coded in percentiles ranging in values from 0 (low) to 99 (high).

High School Curriculum - Curriculum placement was originally a seven-category Base-Year measure obtained from high school Student Record Information Files. The variable was recoded as a dichotomous dummy variable which was defined as enrollment in an academic curriculum (1) versus enrollment in a vocational, general and other non-academic program (0).

Math and Science Course Preparation - The amount of math and science that students take in high school has been found to play a critical role in determining their access to college and the type of colleges they attend (Sells, 1976; Ligon, 1980; Young and Young, 1974). Data consistently show that females and blacks take fewer math and science courses than males and whites, have a lower interest

in math and science, and fare less successfully academically in these areas than do their counterparts (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Sells, 1976, 1978; Fox, 1976). Sells (1978) reported that 92 percent of the females in her study and 50 percent of the blacks who entered college were barred from the more selective colleges and universities because of their inadequate math preparation and performance.

Data on respondents' high school math and science preparation were obtained during the Base-Year from the high school Student Information Record Files. The items indicated the number of semester credits of math and science that black students had taken. The response categories ranged from 0 to 15 semester courses for each subject area. These two items have been dichotomized ($\leq$ 5 hours = 0 and >5 hours = 1) and combined with curriculum placement into a single index of academic preparation. Construction of this composite measure was necessary because students who are placed in an academic curriculum take considerably more science and math courses than students in general or vocational curricula.

5. College-Bound Program Participation

Hunt and Hardt (1969) found that students who participated in Upward Bound enrolled in college at a higher rate than non-program participants. In addition, Crain and Mahard (1978) found that Upward Bound students in the North received a higher percentage of college scholarships than non-program participants. We therefore anticipate that participation in Upward Bound and Talent Search will have a positive impact on entering a four-year college.

Upward Bound Program Participation - In the Base-Year Survey (1972), students were asked if they had participated in the Upward Bound Program. Responses were coded as yes (1) for students who had participated and no (0) for students who had not participated.

Talent Search Program - In the Base-Year Survey (1972) students were also asked if they had participated in the Talent Search Program. Responses were coded as yes (1) for students who had participated and no (0) for students who had not participated.

6. Educational Expectations, Study Habits, and Academic Self-Concept

Sewell and Shah (1967), Portes and Wilson (1976), and others have reported a positive effect of student educational expectations on educational attainment. Thomas (1979) also found that educational expectations was a major determinant for four-year black college students. In addition, Astin and Cross (1977) reported that a higher percentage of black students in black colleges aspire toward the doctorate degree while blacks in predominantly white colleges are more oriented toward professional degrees. Typically, the more time that students spend studying, the higher their grade performance. High grades should in turn have a positive effect on the influence of "significant others," students' college choice, participation in pre-college orientation programs (i.e., Upward Bound and Talent Search), and students' perceptions of their own academic abilities.

Students' confidence in their college ability is also positively related to educational achievement (Gordon, 1969; Green and Farguar, 1965). Academic self-esteem may influence the type of college that students choose to attend. For example, students with a low perception of their academic ability may choose a less competitive college or a junior or vocational college as initial grounds for testing their ability.

Educational Expectations - This is a Base-Year measure in which black students indiciated the highest level of education they expected to achieve. Responses ranged from less than high school graduation (1) to obtaining a graduate or professional degree (6).

Study Habits - This is a Base-Year measure which asked students "how much time they spent weekly doing homework." The responses ranged from no homework assigned to more than 10 hours per week. This measure is dichotomized in the present analysis (less than 5 hours per week = 0, and 5 or more hours per week = 1).

Academic Self-Confidence - This is measured by a Base-Year question which asked, "Whatever your plans, do you think you have the ability to complete college?" The five response options ranged from "yes definitely" = 1 to "definitely not" = 5.

7. Significant Others' Influences, College Inducements, and College Options

Studies have shown that teachers, parents and especially peers influence the educational aspirations and attainment of students (Sewell and Shah, 1967; Persell, 1977; Bowles and Gintis, 1973). Bowles and Gintis have noted that teachers and counselors socialize students from different races, sexes, and social classes for different types and levels of education. Students' choice of a specific college or university is often made on the basis of a variety of institutional attributes or inducements which make some institutions more or less attractive than others. We will examine the influence of the academic status of the college and college proximity on students' college choice. Finally, students' choice of attending a particular college is in part determined by the number of colleges that they have been admitted to. We will therefore examine the influence of students' college admission status on their college choice. We suspect that students in the top ranks of their classes and those with greater family resources will have more college choices or options than less able students.

Significant Others' Influence - is represented by a composite index based on students' Base-Year responses to questions that asked how much influence each

of the following factors exerted on their decision to attend their particular colleges or universities: a) advice of parents; b) advice of teachers/counselors; c) parents having attended same college; and, d) friends attending same college. Each item is scored "1" for some/important influence or "0" for no influence.

Academic Inducements - are represented by a composite index based on students' Base-Year responses to questions asking how much influence each of the following factors exerted on their decision to attend their particular colleges: a) availability of some specific curriculum; b) academic reputation of the college; and c) college's admission standards. Each item is scored "1" for some/important influence or "0" for no influence.

Financial Inducements - are represented by a composite index based on students' Base-Year responses to questions asking how much influence each of the following factors exerted on their decision to attend their particular colleges: a) college costs; and b) availability of financial aid. Each item is scored "1" for some/important influence or "0" for no influence.

Proximity Inducements - are represented by a composite index based on students' Base-Year responses to questions asking how much influence each of the following factors exerted on their decision to attend their particular colleges: a) able to live at home; b) able to return home frequently for visits. Each item is scored "1" for some/important influence or "0" for no influence.

College Options - is a Base-Year measure representing students' response to an item that asked them to indicate the number of colleges from which they had received official notification of acceptance.

The final four variables in our analysis are the major dependent variables. They are defined as follows.

Two-Year vs. Four-Year College Attendance – Data on this measure were derived

from the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) 1972 Institutional Enrollment Survey. It was constructed from the FICE codes which identified the type of college that students attended. Four-year college is coded 0 and two-year is coded 1.

Public vs. Private College Attendance--Data on the institutional control of the colleges that black students attended were also taken from the 1972 OCR Survey. Private college attendance is coded 0 and public college attendance is coded 1.

Predominantly Black vs. Predominantly White College Attendance -- This measure was also taken from the 1972 OCR Survey which contained information on the racial composition of the student body of each federally funded college and university. The original categories were dichotomized as a dummy variable of (1) -- predominantly white (less than 50 percent black) and (0) --predominantly black (50 percent or greater black).

Selective vs. Non-Selective College --This measure was taken from a supplementary NLS institutional data file that contained information about the colleges that NLS respondents attended. College selectivity is defined as the mean SAT score of the student body for each institution. For purposes of cross tabulations, it will be dichotomized as low and high selectivity.

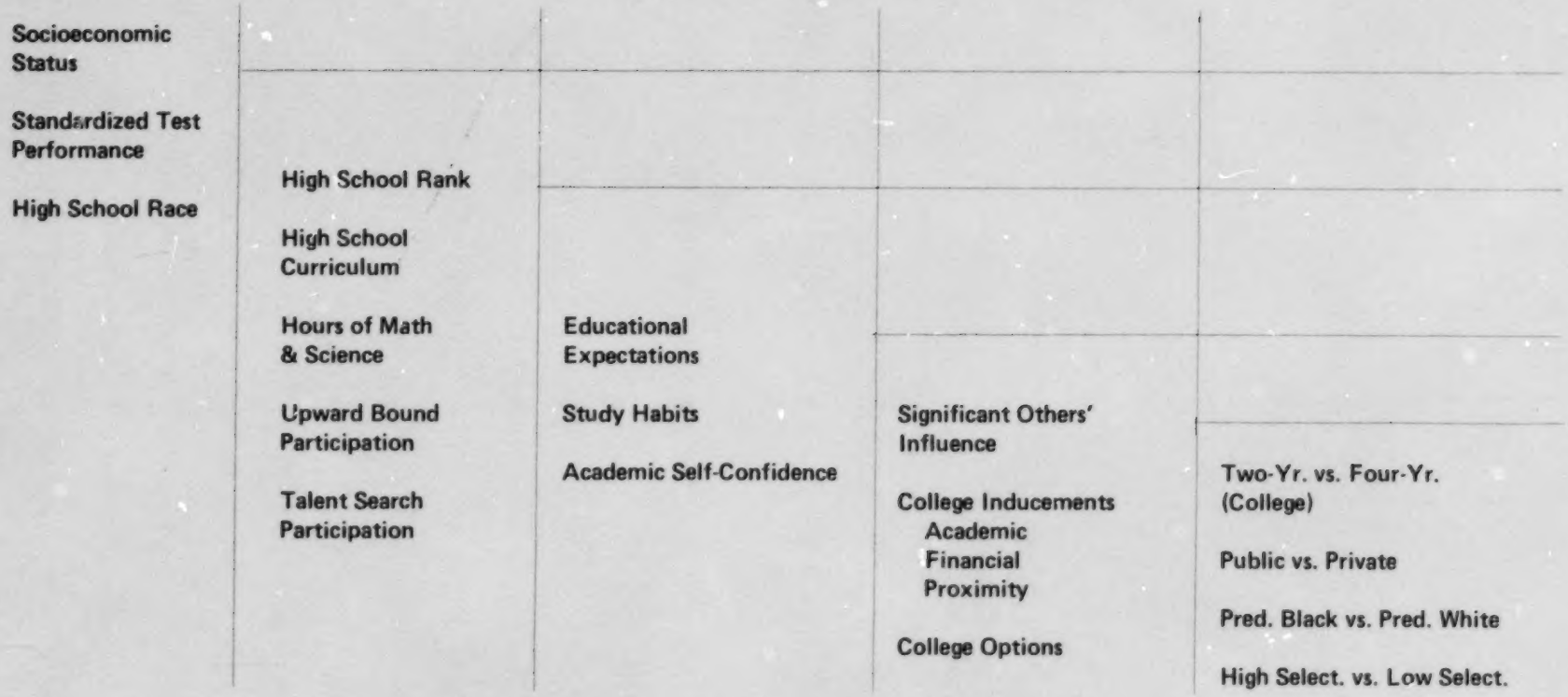
Data Analyses

In the first part of our data analyses, we present cross tabulations to describe the different characteristics of black students who enter various types of colleges and universities. Distributions are presented by sex on the independent variables and the four major dependent variables. This provides an initial assessment of the extent to which black men and women who enter into various types of postsecondary education differ.

Multiple regression will constitute our main analytical technique. This procedure will enable us to assess the simultaneous and separate contribution of the independent variables to the variation in the four dependent variables. In addition, multiple regression provides a basis for establishing the predictive power of the independent variables by interpreting the

Figure 1

Model of Black Students' College Choice[a]



[a]The causal relationship between independent variables will not be analyzed.

coefficient of Determination (R^2).

The analytical model that will be used in our multivariate analysis is presented in Figure 1. Variables will be entered in a stepwise fashion in our regression analysis from left to right in order of their influence. We will not, however, examine the relationships among the independent variables because our prime concern is with the major dependent variables - the college choices of black males and females.

The first panel of Figure 1 shows the exogenous variables (i.e., socioeconomic background, standardized test performance, and the characteristics of the high schools that students attend). These variables are considered as directly and indirectly affecting all the subsequent variables in the model. Variables in the second panel are student high school experience measures and student participation status in pre-college orientation programs. These variables will be entered on the second step of our regression analysis. The third panel shows the influence of educational expectations, academic self-esteem, and students' study habits. These variables are viewed as affecting the variables in the fourth panel -- significant others' influence, students' perceptions of college inducements, and students' college options. These variables also have a direct effect on the types of colleges that students attend. The major outcome variables, types of colleges that students attend, are shown in the final panel of Figure 1.

The independent variables in Figure 1 and their specification reflects the process of students' college choice as it has been described in previous research (Astin, 1977; Dembowski, 1980). However, another important aspect of the college choice process that is not included in our model is the college admissions process component.

Admissions officers rely on students' SAT scores and their high school rank in sorting out students best qualified for their institutions. Dembowski (1980) noted that other critical factors that are taken into consideration are the targeted size of the entering class, the number of applications that the institution receives, the number of students who accept offers

made by the institution, and the type and availability of financial aid at the institutions. A final aspect of the college choice process for students involves evaluating their alternatives and deciding which college they will attend. This decision obviously depends on the number of colleges to which students apply and the number of offers they receive. Dembowski (1980) reported that the college choice process for students can be represented by the following model:

$$Ei = f(Si, Pi, Ci) + u$$

where E = the probability that a student (i) will enter a certain college

S = a vector (or set) of students' characteristics

P = a vector of the college admissions process

C = a vector of the student's evaluation of his college choices

u = error term

Our model entails direct measures of the S component of Dembowski's model and indirect measures of the C component (i.e., we do have a measure of the number of colleges from which students obtained acceptance). However, apart from data on students' standardized test performance and class rank, we do not have measures on the college admissions process. This limitation should be kept in mind. In addition, our model should be primarily viewed as a prediction of the college choice process from the student's perspective (i.e., based on individual student behavior and perceptions) and according to various inputs from their high school environment and from "significant other" individuals in their home and school.

In the following chapter, we present the results from our descriptive and multivariate analyses. This will be followed by a review of our major findings. Policy implications and recommendations will be given in our concluding chapter.

Chapter 3

Results

This chapter presents the findings from our analysis of black students' college choice. First, we present for illustrative purposes, the bivariate distributions of selected characteristics of black students attending two-year vs. four-year colleges; public vs. private colleges; predominantly black (PBI) vs. predominantly white (PWI) colleges; and academically selective vs. academically nonselective colleges. These data show, for a single characteristic or individual level attribute (e.g., social class, background or achievement test scores), the extent to which black students attending various types of colleges differ. We then employ multivariate statistics in order to present a more comprehensive picture of the relative importance of each individual characteristic. Specifically, multiple regression analyses are used to examine the goodness of fit (i.e., the predictive power of the models), and to examine the relative contribution to the goodness of fit of each independent predictor.

Characteristics of Black Students Attending Various Types of Colleges

Table 1 presents the distribution of black student characteristics in different college environments separately for males and females.

It is clear from the distributions presented in Table 1 that black students of both sexes are disproportionately overrepresented at the lower ranges of the social class and achievement test score continuum. However, we also note differences between students attending various types of colleges. Among females, for example, students attending selective colleges or private colleges come from higher SES backgrounds than their counterparts attending nonselective or public colleges. In contrast, the SES backgrounds of female students are quite similar across both college level (two-year vs. four-year) and college racial composition (i.e., predominantly black institutions (PBI) vs. predominantly white institutions (PWI). Although similar differences across types of institution exist among male students, they are less striking.

With the exception of the similarity between black males at PBI's and PWI's, student

TABLE I
Characteristics of Black Students Attending Different Types of Colleges by Sex

Independent Variables	College Level		College Race		College Control		College Select.	
	2 yrs.	4 yr.	PBI	PWI	Pub.	Pvt.	High	Low
FEMALES	(N=518)	(N=341)	(N=446)	(N=509)	(N=693)	(N=193)	(N=244)	(N=306)
SES								
Low	56	51	56	54	56	47	47	59
Medium	35	39	36	37	36	39	41	35
High	9	10	8	9	8	14	12	6
Test Scores								
Low	57	46	56	55	58	40	44	58
Medium	38	44	41	36	37	50	46	38
High	5	10	3	9	5	10	10	4
H.S. Race								
<50 White	47	44	37	55	47	43	52	51
>50 White	53	56	63	45	53	57	48	49
H. S. Region								
South	74	36	69	49	60	52	50	63
Non-South	26	64	31	51	40	48	50	37
H.S. Curriculum								
Academic	41	56	42	47	43	59	59	37
Non-academic	59	44	58	53	57	41	41	63
H.S. Rank								
Top Quartile	35	31	30	32	32	36	47	39
Second Quartile	30	28	30	28	30	25	23	25
Third Quartile	19	28	23	23	22	25	19	20
Bottom Quartile	16	13	17	17	16	14	11	16
Hours Science								
< 5	50	41	48	47	48	41	77	85
> 5	50	59	52	53	52	59	23	15
Hours Math								
< 5	44	35	40	43	42	35	67	82
> 5	56	65	60	57	58	65	33	18
Study habits								
<5 hrs. wk.	45	48	52	43	47	42	40	47
>5 hrs. wk.	55	52	48	57	53	58	60	53
Project Talent								
Participant	9	7	9	8	8	8	7	9
Non-Participant	91	83	91	92	92	92	93	91

TABLE 1 - Continued

	College Level		College Race		College Control		College Select.	
	2 yrs.	4 yr.	PBI	PWI	Pub.	Pvt.	High	Low
FEMALES								
Upward Bound								
Participant	9	7	9	8	8	8	7	9
Non-participant	96	93	95	95	95	94	93	98
Educational Aspirations								
A.A. or less than bachelors	33	17	29	29	29	18	14	41
Bachelors degree or higher	67	83	71	71	71	82	86	59
Academic Self-Esteem								
Definitely finish college	49	58	50	49	49	60	56	47
Probably finish college	36	34	37	36	38	31	35	39
Unsure finish college	13	8	12	12	11	8	9	12
Doubt finish college	2	0	1	2	2	0	0	2
Def. not finish college	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
Reasons for Selecting College								
Specific College Curriculum								
Important Factor	94	97	96	95	95	98	96	94
No Factor	6	3	4	5	5	2	4	6
Colleges Academic Reputation								
Important Factor	89	89	87	90	87	93	92	87
No Factor	11	11	13	10	13	7	8	13
Colleges Admission Standards								
Important Factor	86	86	85	86	86	86	88	86
No Factor	14	14	15	14	14	14	12	14
Able to Live at Home								
Important Factor	47	36	47	41	48	28	40	44
No Factor	53	64	53	59	52	72	60	56
Able to visit home regularly								
Important Factor	69	54	62	64	65	54	66	62
No Factor	31	46	38	36	35	46	34	38
Availability of Financial Aid								
Important Factor	88	88	89	87	87	91	87	90
No Factor	12	12	11	13	13	9	13	10

TABLE 1 - Continued

	College Level		College Race		College Control		College Select.	
	2 yrs.	4 yr.	PBI	PWI	Pub.	Pvt.	High	Low
FEMALES								
College Cost								
Important Factor	92	92	90	93	93	89	93	91
No Factor	8	8	10	7	7	11	7	9
Parents Alma Mater								
Important Factor	12	11	15	10	12	11	25	48
No Factor	88	89	85	90	88	89	75	52
Parents Advice								
Important Factor	87	77	80	80	80	79	79	82
No Factor	17	23	20	20	20	21	21	18
Teachers/Counselors Advice								
Important Factor	61	65	58	69	64	60	63	65
No Factor	39	35	42	31	36	40	37	35
Friends Attend Same College								
Important Factor	42	36	42	37	42	29	38	40
No Factor	58	64	58	63	58	71	62	60
MALES	(N=345)	(N=232)	(N=285)	(N=373)	(N=475)	(N=128)	(N=189)	(N=215)
SES								
Low	55	50	50	59	55	46	51	56
Medium	37	40	40	34	37	42	38	38
High	8	10	10	7	8	12	11	6
Test Scores								
Low	58	46	56	56	57	44	47	59
Medium	37	46	39	38	39	44	44	36
High	5	8	5	6	4	12	9	5
H.S. Race								
< 50 White	51	51	39	59	50	55	47	59
> 50 White	49	49	61	41	50	45	53	41
H. S. Region								
South	66	38	65	47	54	56	53	36
Non-South	34	62	35	53	46	44	47	48
H. S. Curriculum								
Academic	38	55	45	40	41	56	53	36
Non-academic	62	45	55	60	59	44	47	64

TABLE 1 - Continued

	College Level		College Race		College Control		College Select.	
	2 yrs.	4 yr.	PBI	PWI	Pub.	Pvt.	High	Low
MALES								
H. S. Rank								
Top Quartile	15	14	12	16	13	18	29	26
Second Quartile	31	34	39	24	32	33	34	21
Third Quartile	27	30	30	28	28	29	18	28
Bottom Quartile	27	22	19	32	27	20	19	25
Hours Science								
< 5	46	37	40	45	44	32	73	82
> 5	54	63	60	55	56	68	27	18
Hours Math								
< 5	35	27	30	34	35	20	62	75
> 5	65	73	70	66	65	80	38	25
Study habits								
< 5 hrs. wk.	69	60	62	66	65	61	61	69
> 5 hrs. wk.	31	40	38	34	35	39	39	31
Project Talent								
Participant	8	9	10	7	7	15	8	8
Non-participant	92	91	90	93	93	85	92	92
Upward Bound								
Participant	5	5	3	6	4	5	5	4
Non-participant	95	95	97	94	96	95	95	96
Educational Aspirations								
A.A. or less than bachelors	26	26	26	32	29	18	17	38
Bachelors degree or higher	74	74	74	68	71	82	83	62
Academic Self-Esteem								
Definitely finish college	50	57	51	52	52	59	60	49
Probably finish college	37	33	38	31	36	28	32	34
Unsure finish college	9	10	8	14	10	11	6	14
Doubt finish college	3	0	3	2	2	1	2	2
Def. not finish college	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1

TABLE 1 - Continued

	College Level		College Race		College Control		College Select.	
	2 yrs.	4 yr.	PBI	PWI	Pub.	Pvt.	High	Low
MALES								
Reasons for Selecting College								
Specific College Curriculum								
Important Factor	93	94	90	95	93	93	93	93
No Factor	7	6	10	5	7	7	7	7
Colleges Academic Reputation								
Important Factor	88	84	83	88	86	85	87	86
No Factor	12	16	17	12	14	15	13	14
Colleges Admission Standards								
Important Factor	86	79	83	83	83	81	84	81
No Factor	14	21	17	17	17	19	16	19
Able to Live at Home								
Important Factor	44	38	45	39	44	29	39	45
No Factor	56	62	55	61	56	71	61	55
Able to visit home regularly								
Important Factor	62	57	62	57	60	57	56	63
No Factor	38	43	38	43	40	43	44	37
Availability of Financial Aid								
Important Factor	87	89	87	88	87	88	85	92
No Factor	13	11	13	12	13	12	15	8
College Cost								
Important Factor	89	87	85	90	87	90	86	89
No Factor	11	13	15	10	13	10	14	11
Parents Alma Mater								
Important Factor	17	10	14	12	14	10	31	49
No Factor	83	90	86	88	86	90	69	51
Parents Advice								
Important Factor	79	66	77	70	75	68	76	69
No Factor	21	34	23	30	25	32	24	31
Teachers/Counselors Advice								
Important Factor	64	62	62	64	63	62	69	57
No Factor	36	38	38	36	37	38	31	43
Friends Attend Same College								
Important Factor	43	45	41	46	44	44	43	42
No Factor	57	55	59	54	56	56	57	58

aptitude (as measured by achievement test scores) appears to substantially differentiate black students across the various college environments. Higher scoring students of both sexes tend to matriculate at four-year colleges, selective colleges, private colleges, and predominantly white colleges.

High school racial composition tends to differentiate among both male and female black students who attend predominantly white vs. predominantly black colleges and black males who attend selective vs. nonselective colleges only. Here we note that black students attending PWI's and black males attending selective colleges are considerably more likely to be graduates of predominantly white high schools.

Except for attendance at PBI's vs. PWI's, high school curriculum placement substantially distinguishes among black students' attendance at different types of colleges. Students of both sexes who completed an academic as opposed to either a general or vocational curriculum program in high school are disproportionately likely to attend four-year colleges, selective colleges, and private colleges. Similar patterns are also observed for the other two indicators of "academic preparation" -- hours of science and math courses taken in high school.

Students' rank in their high school graduating class exhibits no clear or consistent pattern of differentiation among black students attending various types of colleges. However, the most substantial differences are on selectivity and college racial composition for black males, and on selectivity for black females, with the higher ranking students attending predominantly white or highly selective colleges.

Regarding student study habits, sizable differences appear for females attending PBI's and PWI's; for males and females attending selective and nonselective colleges, and for males attending two- and four-year colleges. Students attending traditionally white, selective, and four-year colleges report spending more time per week doing homework as high school seniors.

By the very nature of such programs, student participation in Project Talent Search or

Upward Bound is limited. Typically, fewer than ten percent of black college students have had such pre-college experiences. Nevertheless, a few minor distinctions on these variables across college environments do appear. Among males, for example, Talent Search participants are twice as likely to enroll in private rather than public colleges while Upward Bound participants are twice as likely to enroll in PWI's rather than PBI's. Among females, Upward Bound participants are three times more likely to enroll in selective rather than nonselective colleges and nearly twice as likely to enroll in four-year colleges rather than two-year colleges.

With regard to black students' postsecondary educational expectations, our data indicate that, for females, students who expect to attain at least a four-year bachelor's degree are more likley to enroll at four-year colleges, private colleges, and selective colleges. In contrast, males who expect to earn at least a B.A. or B.S. degree are more inclined to matriculate at predominantly black colleges, private colleges, and selective colleges. Among males and females, students who express the highest self-confidence in their ability to attain their educational goals are more likely to enroll at four-year colleges, private colleges, and selective colleges.

Considering the importance of "academic inducements" as factors in black student college choice, we find that female students who attend two-year colleges and public colleges are not likely to have been attracted to these institutes because of the availability of a specific curriculum or field of study. Similarly, female students who enroll at public colleges and nonselective colleges are considerably less likely to have been influenced by the academic reputation of their college. Male students who attend predominantly black colleges are less likely to have had their college choice influenced by their school's academic reputation or its curricula offerings than are their counterparts attending predominantly white colleges.

Factors associated with the geographic proximity of various types of colleges as inducements considered by black students show a fairly consistent pattern of variability across college types. Females who attend four-year colleges and private colleges are considerably

less likely to have emphasized either being able to live at home or able to visit home regularly when deciding which college to attend than are females enrolled at two-year colleges and public colleges. Among males, the contrasts between students attending different types of colleges are somewhat less striking than among females. Nevertheless, black males attending four-year colleges, predominantly white colleges, private colleges, and selective colleges placed less importance on college proximity (i.e., living at home/visiting home regularly) in deciding which college to attend than did their counterparts attending two-year colleges, predominantly black colleges, public colleges, and nonselective colleges.

When considering the importance of significant others' influence on black students' college choice, we find that among black males, parental advice is relatively more important for students attending two-year colleges, predominantly black colleges, public colleges, and selective colleges; while among females parental advice is important among students enrolled at two-year colleges.

The fact that a specific college had been attended by their parents was significant only for a small number of black students at each type of institution. However, substantial differences exist in the emphasis placed on this factor among males and females attending selective versus nonselective colleges. The importance of teachers' and counselors' advice in influencing the college selection decisions of black students differs only among females attending two-year versus four-year colleges and among males attending selective versus nonselective colleges. Having friends attending the same college is a relatively important factor for about two out of every five black students.

Determinants of Black Students' College Destination

This section presents the results from our multiple regression analysis on black students' college choice. We present the findings for each dependent variable (type of college attended) separately, for four sex and region subgroups. Tables 2 and 3 present the intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations for all variables in the model of college choice by

high school region, for males and females, respectively.

Two-year versus Four-year College Attendance

Table 4 presents the results from our model of black students' choice for students who entered two-year and four-year college.

Considering first the results from our model of college choice for black males, we note in the first panel of Table 4 that for students from southern high schools the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .112) accounts for eleven percent of the total variation in choice of a two-year college versus a four-year college. Among southern males only three of the fifteen independent variables seem to contribute substantially to the total explained variance. These data indicate that Talent Search participation accounts for roughly one-fifth (.022) of the total variance explained by the model.[1] Male graduates of southern high schools who participate in Talent Search are more likely than nonparticipants to attend four-year colleges rather than two-year colleges.

We also find that among southern male high school graduates, academic inducements are important determinants of choice of a two-year versus a four-year college. Academic inducements (e.g., college admission standards, academic reputation, and curricula offerings) account for nearly one-fourth (.029) of the total variance explained by the model. Students most concerned with academic inducements are more likely to attend two-year colleges than four-year colleges. This observation may suggest that these students could not meet the standard admissions criteria or perhaps felt threatened by the academic reputations and demands of four-year colleges.

The third important determinant of choice of a two-year versus a four-year college among southern male high school graduates are study habits. Students' study habits account for roughly one-tenth (.013) of the total variance explained by the model. Not surprisingly, students exhibiting greater commitment to study are more likely to attend four-year colleges than two-year colleges.

Table 2. Intercorrelations,[a] Means and Standard Deviations of All Variables, Males (Southern students above diagonal, Non-Southern below)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
(1) SES		04	20	21	06	00	-05	22	15	-05	-06	-15	-21	-03	04	-16	-09	-11	13	-5018.61	6864.49
(2) H.S. Race	20		00	-05	-14	00	10	03	08	00	-04	-16	06	03	16	26	-01	03	10	46.33	32.02
(3) Test Scores	37	25		31	51	02	-04	08	33	09	06	-21	03	-22	16	-04	-12	-13	20	1.46	.58
(4) Academic Prep.	26	00	38		25	04	01	26	14	18	10	-03	02	-03	21	-09	-11	-14	20	1.69	1.09
(5) H.S. Rank	03	-25	23	30		11	05	10	30	06	01	-09	08	-09	30	-03	-06	00	23	47.58	25.61
(6) Talent Search	-02	-03	01	01	01		11	09	12	15	02	-07	17	10	20	01	-14	-12	04	.09	.29
(7) Upward Bound	-06	-02	-02	01	-06	14		-11	13	-07	01	-02	12	01	04	13	03	-01	-04	.04	.19
(8) Educ. Exp.	20	25	25	20	-19	-08	10		35	18	-10	-05	16	00	32	-21	-03	-10	25	.67	.47
(9) Acd. Self-Est.	20	-10	25	08	-11	08	01	32		11	12	-02	20	-03	22	-10	-01	-01	14	1.73	.84
(10) Study Habits	04	-07	16	06	-23	01	-11	10	08		00	-07	16	03	00	00	-15	-03	10	.38	.49
(11) Academic Inducements	15	01	07	13	16	-01	02	08	06	08		15	28	25	-09	02	16	05	00	2.63	.67
(12) Proximity Inducements	-22	-09	-25	-14	17	17	01	-23	-16	-05	08		02	33	-10	-13	-02	11	-08	1.06	.83
(13) Financial Inducements	-14	02	-09	-17	01	03	13	01	02	-13	36	12		11	09	11	-02	-06	-02	3.39	.88
(14) Signi. Others Influ.	-05	10	-35	-16	10	06	05	-12	-11	-14	09	32	32		-09	05	02	-03	03	2.09	1.16
(15) College Options	09	10	11	17	-08	08	15	13	14	09	12	-29	-04	-05		04	-08	-15	-25	2.25	.82
(16) College Race[b]	01	20	03	-04	15	-12	01	11	04	-08	08	07	08	03	-08		10	10		.49	.50
(17) College Level[b]	03	-06	-10	-16	-06	10	-03	03	-14	-06	02	11	01	11	-22	-17		20		.72	.45
(18) College Control[b]	08	-13	-18	-20	-08	-10	-02	-09	-04	-06	-03	09	-01	17	-14	01	14			.78	.41
(19) College Selectivity[b]	00	11	38	36	33	-03	08	39	19	11	18	-25	-13	01	-29					1.70	.88
$\bar{X}$	-3923.88	45.38	1.53	1.71	43.59	.07	.05	.75	1.57	.33	2.59	.94	3.46	1.76	2.51	.66	.45	.80	1.57		
S.D.	5540.02	33.94	.63	1.08	25.41	.26	.22	.44	.77	.47	.78	.80	.90	1.03	.73	.47	.50	.40	.71		

[a]Decimals are ommitted from correlation matrix.

[b]Correlations between the four major dependent variables are not reported.

Table 3. Intercorrelations,[a] Means and Standard Deviations of All Variables, Females (Southern students above diagonal, Non-Southern below)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
(1) SES		01	22	16	01	-07	-05	18	09	-04	19	-02	-22	11	06	01	-09	-07	18	-5565.41	6212.73
(2) H.S. Race	07		03	-18	-35	-11	02	-15	02	-04	-05	-05	-01	10	-01	24	04	01	-01	41.62	32.33
(3) Test Scores	33	13		32	43	-14	00	34	22	11	07	-17	-04	-13	17	-02	00	-09	24	1.45	.57
(4) Academic Prep.	21	04	47		29	-02	01	24	16	19	07	-13	11	01	27	-03	-03	-03	32	1.52	1.08
(5) H.S. Rank	-02	-30	30	11		-07	-04	33	33	21	14	-05	-03	-13	24	-06	03	-05	28	57.95	27.00
(6) Talent Search	-02	00	09	20	00		07	-01	09	-04	-09	-08	-09	-09	-01	04	00	-01	-05	.10	.30
(7) Upward Bound	-02	-07	04	12	06	27		05	02	-04	-03	-04	08	-18	-03	-03	02	01	00	.03	.18
(8) Educ. Exp.	32	17	34	31	25	11	13		29	16	16	-21	-02	09	27	-11	-25	-17	36	.70	.46
(9) Acd. Self-Est.	20	08	27	25	21	01	05	27		12	-06	-24	03	09	09	-10	-11	-08	09	1.72	.82
(10) Study Habits	12	02	16	26	11	-09	00	14	27		-10	-04	-05	-07	12	08	05	07	18	.57	.50
(11) Academic Inducements	07	01	17	08	15	-18	-03	16	11	22		-01	24	16	09	-02	-02	-05	01	1.97	1.13
(12) Proximity Inducements	22	-11	-24	-17	01	-04	-02	-15	-10	-11	-04		03	20	-11	01	15	17	-16	1.09	.80
(13) Financial Inducements	21	-01	-08	-13	09	-12	13	02	-12	01	28	06		17	05	-11	02	-05	-08	3.41	.81
(14) Signi. Others Influ.	12	-14	-21	-17	01	-02	00	-02	01	03	26	19	12		09	02	00	09	-09	1.97	1.33
(15) College Options	01	15	31	25	12	-06	09	13	25	11	10	-10	09	-03		-06	-04	00	-21	2.38	.82
(16) College Race[b]	03	18	13	03	08	-04	-01	17	10	14	08	-05	11	03	18		-01	12		.45	.50
(17) College Level[b]	-08	00	-19	-29	-02	02	-08	-16	-10	-06	-01	17	-07	05	-18	-15		15		.76	.43
(18) College Control[b]	01	05	-21	-23	-03	01	-03	00	-09	-18	-06	14	-04	07	-18	11	20			.81	.40
(19) College Selectivity[b]	20	08	24	18	19	-01	17	42	18	18	14	04	04	01	-20					1.78	.87
$\bar{X}$	-3592.80	43.51	1.59	1.67	55.03	.06	.07	.72	1.60	.48	2.71	1.04	3.48	1.91	.65	.39	.75	.81	1.49		
S.D.	6240.50	33.81	.65	1.13	26.18	.24	.26	.45	.75	.50	.61	.80	.81	1.02	.48	.49	.43	.40	.70		

[a] Decimals are ommitted from correlation matrix.

[b] Correlations between the four major dependent variables are not reported.

Table 4. Regression Results for Model of Black Student Choice of Two-Year versus Four-Year College

Independent Variables	Southern Males (N=355) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Males (N=298) b	B	RSQ Change	Southern Females (N=561) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Females (N=394) b	B	RSQ Change
SES	-.085	.000	.008	.023	.000	.001	-.055	.000	.008	.126	.000	.000
H.S. Race	.011	.000	.000	-.056	-.001	.003	.048	.001	.002	.143	.002	.002
Test Scores	-.148	-.116	.008	.001	-.001	.008	.090	.068	.001	-.081	-.060	.045
Academic Prep.	-.084	-.035	.006	-.166	-.077	.018	.002	.001	.000	-.261	-.112*	.056
H.S. Rank	-.109	-.002	.004	.009	.000	.000	.125	.002	.002	.123	.002	.006
Talent Search	-.131	-.204	.022	.147	.282	.010	.030	.043	.000	.090	.183	.004
Upward Bound	.040	.093	.001	-.037	-.085	.002	.047	.115	.000	-.029	-.055	.005
Educ. Exp.	.083	.079	.000	.173	.198	.011	-.281	-.264*	.069	-.129	-.140	.013
Acd. Self-Est.	.037	.197	.001	-.153	.099	.027	-.081	-.042	.007	-.002	-.002	.000
Study Habits	-.122	-.113	.013	-.050	-.053	.003	.075	.065	.004	.030	.029	.001
Academic Inducements	.206	.138*	.029	.089	.057	.002	.019	.013	.000	.065	.051	.001
Proximity Inducements	-.108	-.058	.010	-.005	.003	.000	.088	.048	.009	.134	.082*	.015
Financial Inducements	-.084	-.043	.005	-.081	-.045	.002	-.009	-.005	.000	-.097	-.058	.007
Significant Others Influ.	.005	.002	.000	.078	.037	.004	.059	.022	.003	-.015	-.007	.000
College Options	-.065	-.036	.002	-.204	-.140*	.035	-.003	-.001	.000	-.090	-.066	.009
	$R^2 = .112$			$R^2 = .127$			$R^2 = .106$			$R^2 = .165$		

b = Standardized regression coefficient

B = Unstandardized regression coefficient

* Indicates unstandardized regression coefficient is at least one and one-half times its standard error

The second panel of Table 4 presents the results from our model of two-year versus four-year college choice for northern male high school graduates. Here we see that the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .127) accounts for approximately 13 percent of the total variation in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges. While the explanatory or predictive power of the model in accounting for two-year versus four-year college choice is quite similar among southern males (R^2 = .112) and northern males (R^2 = .127), the relative contributions of the independent variables show interesting differences between the two groups.

Among non-southern males, four of the fifteen independent predictors make substantial contributions to the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges. These four factors--academic preparation, educational expectations, academic self-esteem, and college options--do not coincide with the determinants of college choice that exist for southern males.

The largest contributing factor to the explained variation in choice of two-year colleges versus four-year colleges among non-southern males is college options. This factor accounts for roughly three-tenths (.035) of the total variance explained. Students having the greatest number of college options are more likely to attend four-year colleges rather than two-year colleges. Academic self-esteem accounts for roughly one-fifth (.027) of the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges among black male graduates of non-southern high schools. Students with high academic self-esteem (i.e., feeling self-confident about their ability to complete college) are more likely to attend four-year colleges than two-year colleges.

Academic preparation (i.e., having completed a college prep or academic curriculum and taken the maximum numbers of science and math courses in high school) accounts for nearly one-seventh (.018) of the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges among non-southern males. As might be expected, more adequately academically prepared students are more likely to matriculate at four-year colleges than two-year

colleges.

Finally, among male graduates of non-southern high schools, we find that educational expectations account for slightly less than one-tenth (.011) of the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges. Students with the highest educational expectations are more likely to attend four-year colleges than two-year colleges.

Turning next to the determinants of choice of a two-year college versus a four-year college among females, the third panel of Table 4 shows that among black female graduates of southern high schools, the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .106) accounts for roughly eleven percent of the total variation in this dependent variable. Interestingly, however, only one of fifteen predictors--educational expectations--make a significant contribution to southern black females' choice of a two-year versus a four-year college. Educational expectations account for roughly two-thirds (.069) of the total explained variance in college control, while each of the remaining variables account for less than one percent of the total variance in southern females' choice of two-year versus four-year colleges.

The last panel of Table 4 shows that among female graduates of non-southern high schools our model accounts for approximately 17 percent (R^2 = .165) of the total variance in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges. Thus, the model provides a better fit for non-southern females than for any of the other groups considered. Among this group, four of the fifteen predictors make significant contributions to the total variance explained.

Academic preparation (i.e., having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken the maximum number of science and math course in high school) accounts for roughly one third (. 056) of the total variance explained in non-southern females choice of a two-year versus a four-year college. As with their non-southern male counterparts, non-southern females who have adequate high school academic preparation are more likely to enroll in four-year colleges than two-year colleges.

Additionally, standardized test performance accounts for slightly more than one-

fourth (.045) of the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges among northern females. As might be expected, students with higher test scores are more likely to attend four-year colleges that two-year colleges. Interestingly, non-southern females are the only group for which standardized test performance influenced entry into a two-year versus four-year college.

College proximity (i.e., being able to live at home or visit home regularly) accounts for nearly one-tenth of the total variance explained in choice of two-year versus four-year colleges among female graduates of non-southern high schools. Students who cited college proximity as an important factor in their college selection decision were more likely to attend two-year colleges than four-year colleges.

Lastly, educational expectations account for nearly one-tenth of the total variance explained in non-southern females choice of two-year versus four-year colleges. Like non-southern males and southern females, non-southern females with high educational expectations are more likely to attend four-year colleges than two-year colleges.

Public Versus Private College Attendance

Table 5 presents the results from our model for black students who entered public versus private colleges.

Considering first the results of black males, we note in the first panel of Table 5 that for graduates of southern high schools, the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .086) only accounts for nine percent of the variance in public versus private college enrollment. Among Southern males only three of the fifteen predictors contribute to the total explained variance. Participation in Talent Search accounts for roughly one-sixth (.014) of the total variance explained in southern males choice of public versus private colleges. Students who participate in Talent Search are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges.

Social class background accounts for approximately 15 percent (.013) of the total variance explained in choice of public versus private colleges among southern males. Not

Table 5. Regression Results for Model of Black Student Choice of Public versus Private Colleges

Independent Variables	Southern Males (N=355) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Males (N=298) b	B	RSQ Change	Southern Females (N=561) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Females (N=394) b	B	RSQ Change
SES	-.073	.000	.013	-.022	.000	.007	-.072	.000	.005	-.025	.000	.006
H.S. Race	.091	.001	.001	-.106	-.001	.013	-.021	.000	.000	.047	.001	.006
Test Scores	-.131	-.094	.011	-.035	-.022	.020	.006	.004	.006	-.137	-.091	.041
Academic Prep.	-.078	-.030	.008	-.152	-.057	.022	.018	.007	.000	-.133	-.051	.021
H.S. Rank	-.054	.001	.000	-.029	.000	.002	-.012	.000	.000	.046	.001	.002
Talent Search	-.086	-.122	.014	-.105	-.164	.016	.027	.036	.000	-.014	-.026	.001
Upward Bound	.004	-.009	.000	.016	.030	.000	.056	.127	.000	-.009	-.015	.000
Educ. Exp.	-.035	-.031	.003	-.005	-.005	.000	-.178	-.154	.022	.123	.119	.009
Acd. Self-Est.	.096	.047	.006	.038	-.020	.000	-.024	-.016	.001	-.014	.008	.001
Study Habits	.025	.022	.000	-.028	-.024	.001	.105	.084	.010	-.132	-.115*	.016
Academic Inducements	.077	.048	.002	.025	.013	.000	.007	.005	.000	-.002	-.002	.000
Proximity Inducements	.092	.046	.004	-.003	-.001	.001	.119	.059	.017	.082	.045	.006
Financial Inducements	-.088	-.041	.006	-.108	-.049	.003	-.097	-.048	.005	-.072	-.039	.004
Significant Others Influ.	-.097	-.035	.007	.149	.058	.016	.123	.043	.011	.022	.009	.000
College Options	-.108	-.054	.009	-.091	-.050	.007	.044	.022	.002	-.111	-.072	.012
	R^2 = .086			R^2 = .102			R^2 = .081			R^2 = .120		

b = Standardized regression coefficient

B = Unstandardized regression coefficient

* Indicates unstandardized regression coefficient is at least one and one-half times its standard error

surprisingly, students from higher social class families are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges. Standardized test performance accounts for one-eighth (.011) of the total variance explained in choice of public versus private colleges among male graduates of southern high schools. Students with higher test scores are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges.

The second panel of Table 5, shows that our model accounts for roughly ten percent of the total variation in choice of public versus private colleges among male graduates of non-southern high schools (R^2 = .102). Five of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total variance explained in this dependent variable.

Academic preparation (i.e., having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken the maximum number of science and math courses in high school) accounts for nearly one-fourth (.022) of the total variance explained in non-southern males choice of public versus private colleges. Students who have had good high school academic preparation are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges.

Standardized test performance accounts for roughly one-fifth (.020) of the total variance explained in public versus private college attendance among male graduates of non-southern high schools. As might be expected, students with higher standardized test scores more often attend private colleges than public colleges.

The influence of "significant others" accounts for nearly one-sixth (.016) of the total variance explained in choice of a public versus a private college among non-southern males. Significant others' influence (e.g., parents, teachers, counselors, friends) more strongly affects the decisions of non-southern males to attend public than private colleges.

High school racial composition accounts for roughly one-eighth (.013) of the total variance explained in non-southern males choice of a public versus a private college. Specifically, male graduates of non-southern predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend private colleges rather than public colleges. Finally, participation in Talent Search

accounts for one-sixth (.016) of the total variation in choice of public versus private colleges among male graduates of non-southern high schools. Talent Search participants are more likely to enroll at private colleges than at public colleges.

Considering next the determinants of choice of a public college versus a private college among females, the third panel of Table 5 shows that the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .081) for southern females accounts for only eight percent of the variance in this dependent variable. Additionally, we note that four of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total variance explained in southern females' choice of public versus private colleges.

Educational expectations account for somewhat more than one-fourth (.022) of the total variation explained in choice of public versus private colleges among female graduates of southern high schools. Students with the highest educational expectations are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges.

Proximity inducements (i.e., being able to live at home or able to visit home regularly) account for nearly one-fourth (.017) of the total variance explained in southern females choice of enrolling at public versus private colleges. Students who cite proximity factors as having influenced their college selection decision are more likely to have enrolled in a public college than a private college.

"Significant others' " influences account for one-eighth (.011) of the total variance explained in southern females choice of a public versus a private college. The influence of significant others (e.g., parents, teachers, counselors, friends) more strongly affects the decision of southern females to attend public colleges than private colleges. In addition, students' study habits account for one-eighth (.010) of the total variance explained in choice of attending a public versus a private college among female graduates of southern high schools. Students who were most committed to studying (i.e., doing homework) were more likely to attend a public than a private college.

As shown in the fourth panel of Table 5, our model accounts for twelve percent of the total variance in public versus private college attendance for non-southern black females (R^2 = .120). Additionally, four of the fifteen independent variables make important contributions to the total variance accounted for in public versus private college attendance among black female graduates of non-southern high schools.

Standardized test performance is the major determinant of non-southern black females' choice of attending a public versus a private college. It accounts for one-third (.041) of the total variance explained in this dependent variable. Students with high scores, as might be expected, are more likely to attend a private college than a public college.

Academic preparation (i.e., having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken a maximum number of science and math courses in high school) accounts for one-sixth (.021) of the total explained variance in choice of a public versus a private college among non-southern females. Students who are better prepared academically are more likely to attend a private than a public college.

Students' study habits (i.e., hours spent doing homework) account for roughly one-eighth (.016) of the total explained variance in non-southern females choice of attending a public versus a private college. Students committed to study are more likely to attend a private than a public college.

Lastly, college options account for one-tenth (.012) of the total variance explained in public versus private college attendance among black female graduates of non-southern high schools. Students with the greatest number of college choices (i.e., official college admissions acceptances) are more likely to attend private colleges than public colleges.

Predominantly Black versus Predominantly White College Attendance

Table 6 presents the results from our model of black students' college choice for students who enrolled in a predominantly black college (PBI) versus a predominantly white college (PWI).

Table 6. Regression Results for Model of Black Student Choice of Traditionally Black Colleges versus Traditionally White Colleges

Independent Variables	Southern Males (N=355) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Males (N=298) b	B	RSQ Change	Southern Females (N=561) b	B	RSQ Change	Non-Southern Females (N=394) b	B	RSQ Change
SES	-.112	.000	.026	-.056	.000	.000	.007	.000	.000	.001	.000	.001
H.S. Race	.215	.003*	.069	.157	.002	.041	.273	.004*	.055	.170	.002*	.032
Test Scores	-.026	-.022	.000	.053	.040	.000	-.015	.013	.001	.039	.029	.011
Academic Prep.	-.004	-.002	.001	-.011	-.005	.001	.041	.019	.000	-.072	-.030	.001
H.S. Rank	.000	.000	.000	-.102	-.002	.010	.104	.002	.002	.069	.001	.013
Talent Search	-.023	-.039	.000	-.124	-.226	.014	.104	.170	.004	-.008	-.018	.001
Upward Bound	.058	.149	.008	.029	.064	.001	-.017	-.049	.002	-.024	-.044	.000
Educ. Exp.	-.227	.241*	.030	.093	.100	.007	-.087	-.095	.008	.107	.114	.012
Acd. Self-Est.	-.011	-.006	.000	.039	.024	.001	-.131	-.079	.012	-.030	-.019	.004
Study Habits	.023	.023	.001	-.043	-.043	.002	.107	.107	.010	.110	.106	.011
Academic Inducements	-.009	-.007	.000	.067	.041	.005	-.024	.020	.000	-.031	-.024	.000
Proximity Inducements	-.143	-.086	.013	.066	.039	.004	-.018	-.013	.000	-.013	-.008	.000
Financial Inducements	.095	.054	.007	.013	.007	.000	-.113	-.070	.009	.094	.055	.007
Significant Others Influ.	.073	.031	.004	.032	.015	.001	.056	.025	.002	.051	.024	.002
College Options	.074	.045	.005	-.083	-.054	.010	-.071	-.044	.004	.115	.082	.013
	$R^2 = .165$			$R^2 = .098$			$R^2 = .110$			$R^2 = .107$		

b = Standardized regression coefficient

B = Unstandardized regression coefficient

* Indicates unstandardized regression coefficient is at least one and one-half times its standard error

Considering first the results for black males, we note in the first panel of Table 6 that for graduates of southern high schools, the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .165) accounts for about seventeen percent of the total variance in college racial composition. Also, three of the fifteen independent variables make important contributions to the total explained variance in the racial composition of the college that black southern males attend.

High school racial composition is by far the most important determinant of attending a predominantly black versus a predominantly white college among black male graduates of southern high schools. High school racial composition accounts for forty-one percent (.069) of the total explained variance in choice of a PBI versus a PWI. Black southern males from predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend a PWI than a PBI. Educational expectations account for nearly one-fifth (.030) of the total variance explained in southern males' choices of a PBI versus a PWI. Black southern males with high educational expectations are more likely to enroll at a predominantly black than a predominantly white college. Social class background accounts for about one-sixth (.026) of the total variance explained in college racial composition among black male graduates of southern high schools. Higher SES students among this group are more likely to attend a predominantly black than a predominantly white college.

As shown in the second panel of Table 6, our model accounts for about ten percent (R^2 = .098) of the variance in choice of a predominantly black versus a predominantly white college among male graduates of non-southern high schools. Again, only three of the fifteen independent variables make a sizeable contribution in explaining enrollment in a predominantly black versus a predominantly white college among this group.

Like southern males, high school racial composition is also the major determinant of attending a predominantly white college for non-southern males. Among black male graduates of non-southern high schools, the racial composition of the high school accounts for no more than forty percent (.041) of the total variance explained in choice of a PBI versus a

PWI. Again, students from predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

Participation in Talent Search accounts for slightly more than one-tenth (.014) of the total variation explained in choice of attendance at PWIs vs PBIs among black male graduates of non-southern high schools. Talent Search participants are more likley to enroll at PBIs than at PWIs.

Finally, high school rank accounts for one-tenth (.010) of the total explained variation in choice of PBIs vs PWIs among black male graduates of non-southern high schools. Among this group higher ranking students are more likely to attend PWIs than PBIs.

Considering next the determinants of choice of a predominantly white college versus a predominantly black college among females, we note in the third panel of Table 6 that for graduates of southern high schools the coefficient of determination (R^2 = .110) accounts for eleven percent of the total variation in this dependent variable. Additionally, three of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total explained variation in southern female choices of a predominantly black versus a predominantly white college.

Like southern and non-southern males, high school racial composition is the most important determinant of southern females' choice of attending a predominantly black versus a predominantly white college. Among female graduates of southern high schools, the racial composition of the high school accounts for slightly more than 50 percent (.055) of the total variance in attending a PBI versus a PWI. Students from predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend a predominantly white college than a predominantly black college.

Academic self-esteem accounts for roughly ten percent (.012) of the total variance explained in attending a PBI versus a PWI among black female graduates of southern high schools. Students with high academic self-esteem (i.e., expressing strong self-confidence in their ability to complete college) are more likely to enter a predominantly white college than a predominantly black college.

Study habits (i.e., hours spent doing homework) account for roughly ten percent (.010) of the total explained variance in southern females' choice of PBIs versus PWIs. Students who exhibit the greatest commitment to study are more likely to enter predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

As shown in the fourth panel of Table 6, our model accounts for about 11 percent (R^2 = .107) of the total variance explained in non-southern females' choice of attending PBIs versus PWIs. Additionally, six of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total explained variation in this dependent variable for non-southern females.

High school racial composition is again the major determinant of choice of a PBI versus a PWI among black female graduates of non-southern high schools. High school racial composition accounts for nearly one-third (.032) of the total explained variance in non-southern females choice of PBIs versus PWIs. Among this group, students from predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

College options account for one-tenth (.013) of the total variance explained in non-southern females' choice of PBIs versus PWIs. For this group, students with the greatest number of college options (i.e., college admissions acceptances) are more likely to attend PWIs rather than PBIs.

High school rank also accounts for roughly one-tenth (.013) of the total explained variance in non-southern females' choice of PBIs versus PWIs. Higher ranking students are more likely to attend predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

Educational expectations account for one-tenth (.012) of the total explained variance in choice of attendance at PBIs versus PWIs among black female graduates of non-southern schools. Students with the highest educational expectations are more likely to enroll at predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

Standardized test performance also accounts for roughly one-tenth (.011) of the

total variance explained in non-southern females' choice of PBIs versus PWIs. Higher scoring students are more likely to attend predominantly white colleges than predominantly black colleges.

Finally, study habits account for roughly one-tenth (.011) of the total explained variance in choice of attendance at PBIs versus PWIs among black female graduates of non-southern high schools. Students exhibiting the greatest commitment to study (i.e., doing homework) are more likely to matriculate at predominantly white than predominantly black colleges.

Selective versus Nonselective College Attendance

Table 7 presents the results from our model of black students' choice of academically selective colleges versus academically nonselective colleges.

The first panel of Table 7 shows that for black male graduates of southern high schools, the model accounts for roughly 14 percent (R^2 = .144) of the total variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. Additionally, six of the fifteen independent predictors contribute significantly to the total explained variation in this dependent variable for southern black males.

Academic preparation (having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken large numbers of science and math courses in high school) accounts for less than one-tenth (.011) of the total explained variance in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among southern black males. Not surprisingly, students who are better prepared academically are more likely to enroll at selective rather than nonselective colleges.

Standardized test performance accounts for roughly one-fifth (.030) of the total explained variation in choice of selective colleges versus non-selective colleges among black male graduates of southern high schools. Higher scoring students are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than at nonselective colleges.

Educational expectations account for nearly one-eighth (.017) of the total explained

Table 7. Regression Results for Model of Black Student Choice of Selective versus Non-Selective Colleges

Independent Variables	Southern Males (N=355)			Non-Southern Males (N=298)			Southern Females (N=561)			Non-Southern Females (N=394)		
	b	B	RSQ Change	b	B	RSQ Change	b	B	RSQ Change	b	B	RSQ Change
SES	.106	.118	.018	-.136	-.181	.000	.130	.144*	.032	.093	.124*	.039
H.S. Race	.084	.002	.001	.077	.002	.001	.008	.000	.011	.066	.002	.004
Test Scores	.028	.033	.030	.172	.240*	.153	.013	.016	.044	.098	.129	.035
Academic Prep.	.020	.013	.011	.134	.121	.065	.164	.116*	.054	.002	.002	.008
H.S. Rank	.157	.004	.032	.212	.007*	.036	.182	.005*	.033	.038	.001	.025
Talent Search	-.032	-.081	.000	.035	.120	.001	-.016	-.037	.000	-.047	-.181	.000
Upward Bound	-.032	-.118	.017	.028	.112	.005	.002	.009	.000	.160	.561*	.032
Educ. Exp.	.129	.071	.017	.243	.182*	.053	.217	.132*	.043	.323	.243*	.072
Acd. Self-Est.	.009	.008	.000	-.002	.002	.006	.090	.082	.000	.037	.043	.009
Study Habits	.044	.041	.001	-.086	-.106	.001	.075	.066	.005	.065	.073	.004
Academic Inducements	.029	.031	.000	.245	.274*	.028	-.069	-.077	.005	.071	.102	.005
Proximity Inducements	-.015	-.013	.000	-.077	-.084	.014	-.040	-.035	.002	.117	.127	.012
Financial Inducements	-.034	-.045	.001	-.193	-.310*	.033	-.012	-.018	.000	.000	-.001	.000
Significant Others Influ.	.063	.001	.004	.085	.001	.003	-.069	-.001	.005	.059	.001	.004
College Options	-.153	-.114	.017	-.177	-.214*	.026	-.041	-.035	.001	-.092	-.121	.007
	$R^2 = .144$			$R^2 = .423$			$R^2 = .235$			$R^2 = .258$		

b = Standardized regression coefficient

B = Unstandardized regression coefficient

* Indicates unstandardized regression coefficient is at least one and one-half times its standard error

variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among southern males. Students with high educational expectations are more likely to attend selective colleges rather than nonselective colleges. High school rank accounts for about one-fifth (.032) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among southern black males. Not surprisingly, higher ranking students are more likely to attend selective than nonselective colleges.

Social class background also accounts for one-eighth (.018) of the total variation explained in southern males' choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. Students from higher social class backgrounds are more likely to attend selective rather than nonselective colleges.

Finally, college options account for roughly one-eighth (.017) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among black male graduates of southern high schools. Students with the greatest number of college options are more likely to attend selective than nonselective colleges.

As shown in the second panel of Table 7, our model accounts for slightly more than 40 percent (R^2 = .423) of the total amount of variance in choice of a selective versus a nonselective college among non-southern black males. Additionally, eight of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total explained variation in non-southern males' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college.

Among black male graduates of non-southern high schools, by far the most important determinant of choice of a selective versus a nonselective college is standardized test performance. Standardized test performance accounts for slightly more than one-third (.153) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. As might be expected, higher scoring students are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than at nonselective colleges.

Academic preparation (having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken

large numbers of science and math courses in high school) accounts for roughly one-sixth (.065) of the total variation explained in non-southern males' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college. Students who are better prepared academically are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than at nonselective colleges.

Educational expectations account for roughly one-eighth (.053) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among black male graduates of non-southern high schools. For this group, students with higher educational expectations are more likely to attend a selective than a nonselective college.

High school rank accounts for approximately one-tenth (.036) of the total explained variance in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among non-southern males. As might be expected, higher ranking students are more likely to attend selective colleges than nonselective colleges.

Financial inducements (i.e., availability of financial aid and college costs) account for approximately one-twelfth (.033) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among non-southern males. Students for whom financial considerations are important in selecting a college are more likely to attend nonselective colleges than selective colleges.

Academic inducements (i.e., college curricula offerings, academic reputation, and admission standards) account for roughly seven percent (.028) of the total explained variation in non-southern males' choice of selective colleges versus nonselective colleges. Non-southern males for whom academic inducements exert an important influence on their choice of college are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than nonselective colleges.

College options account for six percent (.026) of the total explained variation in choice of selective colleges versus nonselective colleges among black male graduates of non-southern high schools. Contrary to our expectations, students with the greatest number of options (i.e., offered college admissions acceptances) are more likely to enroll in a non-

selective than a selective college.

Proximity inducements (i.e., being able to live at home or being able to visit home regularly) account for three percent of the total explained (.014) variance in non-southern males' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college. Surprisingly, and contrary to past findings (Astin, 1965, 1977), students for whom proximity considerations are important are more likely to enroll in a nonselective college than a selective college.

Considering next the determinants of choice of a selective college versus a nonselective college among females, the third panel of Table 7 shows that for female graduates of southern high schools, the model accounts for about one-quarter (R^2 = .235) of the total variation in the dependent variable. Additionally, six of the fifteen independent predictors make important contributions to the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among southern females.

Academic preparation (having completed a college preparatory curriculum and taken large numbers of science and math courses in high school) accounts for roughly 25 percent (.054) of the total explained variance in choice of a selective versus a nonselective college among southern females. As with their male counterparts, southern female students who are academically better prepared are more likely to attend a selective college than a nonselective college.

Standardized test performance accounts for roughly one-fifth (.044) of the total explained variance in southern females' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college. Not surprisingly, higher scoring students are more likely to attend selective colleges than nonselective colleges.

Educational expectations account for nearly one-fifth (.043) of the total explained variation in southern females' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college. Students with higher educational expectations are more likely to enroll in a selective than in a nonselective college.

High school rank accounts for roughly one-seventh (.033) of the total explained variation in choice of selective colleges versus nonselective colleges among black female graduates of southern high schools. Higher ranking students are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than at nonselective colleges.

Social class background accounts for roughly one-seventh (.032) of the total explained variance in choice of selective colleges versus nonselective colleges among southern females. Students from higher social class backgrounds are more likely to enroll in selective than nonselective colleges. Finally, high school racial composition accounts for five percent (.011) of the total explained variation in southern females' choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. Among this group, students from predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend selective than nonselective colleges.

As shown in the fourth panel of Table 7, our model accounts for roughly one-quarter of the total variance (R^2 = .258) in non-southern females' choice of attending a selective versus a nonselective college. Additionally, six of the fifteen independent variables make important contributions to the total explained variation in this dependent variable.

Educational expectations provide the largest single determinant of non-southern females' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college, accounting for slightly more than one-quarter (.072) of the total explained variance. Students with higher educational expectations are more likely to attend selective than nonselective colleges.

Social class background accounts for roughly one-sixth (.039) of the total variation explained in non-southern females' choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. Students from higher social class backgrounds are more likely to enroll in selective than nonselective colleges.

Standardized test performance accounts for nearly one-seventh (.035) of the total explained variation in choice of selective versus nonselective colleges among black female graduates of non-southern high schools. As might be expected, higher scoring students

are more likely to enroll at selective than nonselective colleges.

Participation in Upward Bound accounts for roughly one-eighth (.032) of the total variance explained in non-southern females' choice of selective versus nonselective colleges. Upward Bound participants are more likely to enroll at selective colleges than at nonselective colleges.

High school rank accounts for one-tenth (.025) of the total explained variance in non-southern females' choice of a selective versus a nonselective college. Higher ranking students are more likely to attend selective than nonselective colleges.

Finally, college proximity (i.e., being able to live at home or being able to visit home regularly) accounts for five percent (.012) of the total explained variance in choice of attending a selective versus a nonselective college among black female graduates of non-southern high schools.

Summary and Conclusions

Our objective in this report was to examine factors that determine the college destination of black students. The use of National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) data allowed us to extend the existing research. For example, we were able to specify a set of independent variables and evaluate their effects on the enrollment of black students in (1) two-year vs. four-year colleges, (2) public vs. private colleges, (3) predominantly black vs. predominantly white colleges, and (4) highly selective vs. less selective colleges.

Most educational attainment research on blacks has investigated factors that influence their transition from high school to college or the amount of schooling blacks obtain over their entire educational career (Portes and Wilson, 1976; Porter, 1974; Thomas, Alexander and Eckland, 1979). These studies have not examined the types of colleges that black students attend, with one exception--an investigation by Thomas (1979) on the enrollment of blacks in two-year vs. four-year colleges. Our comparison of the effects of various independent variables on the college destination of black students broadens the current focus and expands our level of understanding about where students go to college.

Our investigation of sex and regional effects also clarifies the college destination of black students. Past investigations based on the NLS data have shown significant sex interactions affecting the educational attainment of blacks (Thomas, Alexander and Ekland, 1979; Thomas, 1979; Thomas, 1981). In addition, Crain and Mahard (1978) reported significant regional differences in college access. These studies indicated the need to examine differences and similarities in the college destination process for black males and females who were enrolled in southern and non-southern high schools. In doing so, we found interesting sex and regional differences and similarities. For example, standardized test performance and high educational expectations were major predictors of attending a private college for all sex and regional groups. However, high school academic preparation (i.e., enrollment in an academic

track and taking the maximum number of math and science courses) was also an important predictor of college selectivity for black males and females who attended southern high schools.

The comparisons among the four college destination variables for race and sex groups reveal that determining "who goes where to college" is a complex issue. For example, where a student goes to college depends to some extent on who the student is--the student's personal attributes (i.e., race, sex, family background). Academic ability, levels of expectations, and motivations are also important influences on college destination (Borgen, 1970).

Our findings indicate that where black students attend college is also a function of the demographic characteristics of their high schools. Black students who attend predominantly white high schools are more likely to attend a predominantly white college than a predominantly black college. This was especially true for black males and females who were enrolled in southern high schools.

The results from our multivariate analyses further suggested that factors which may be important predictors of enrollment of black students in one type of college may not be important predictors of their enrollment in another type of college. For example, having adequate academic preparation at the high school level (i.e., being enrolled in an academic track and taking a maximum amount of math and science courses) and having high educational expectations were important predictors for most groups for attending a four-year college and a highly selective college. However, high school racial composition (i.e., attending a predominantly white high school) was the most important predictor of college racial composition (i.e., attending a predominantly white college). These observations imply that: (1) the question of "who goes where" to college must be evaluated in great detail; and that (2) the answers to this question vary depending upon who the student is, his or her high school experiences and achievement, and the specific type of college that he or she chooses to enter.

The findings from our multivariate analyses also show that the independent variables

differed extensively in their ability to predict the types of colleges that black students attended. The percent of variances ranged from .10 to .42, with the independent variables being most predictive of attending a highly selective college (R^2 = .42) and least predictive of attending a public vs. a private college (R^2 = .10). The maximum percentage of variance explained for most of the research models ranged from .12 to .16. Thus, a substantial proportion of the variance in black students' college choice was not explained by our research model.

The variables in our research model were primarily student level measures. Institutional level measures and other variables that were not included in our analyses may be important in further understanding black students' college choice. As previously noted, Dembowski (1980) found that data on the college admissions process and on the behavior of college admissions officers are important in understanding students' college choice. Also, information on the type and amount of financial aid that entering college students receive might be useful. [2] Astin (1978) reported that the extent to which students can afford to attend the college of their choice is a critical factor affecting their actual enrollment. Jackson (1977) found that receiving financial aid, irrespective of the amount, increases students' chance of access to college. Also, Fenske and Boyd (1971) reported that state scholarships and grants-in-aid enabled many students to attend private colleges who otherwise would have enrolled in less expensive public colleges. Future investigations should examine the influence of the college admissions process and student financial aid on students' college choice.

More detailed information on students' perceptions and motivations for their college choices may also prove useful. Retrospective data from students currently enrolled in various colleges would be helpful as well as data from prospective entering freshmen. More extensive information on the impact of high school officials, parents, and peers on students' college choice also may be needed. The conventional measures of "significant others' influence" employed in this study were not effective in predicting black students' college choice. However,

the additional variables that we suggest for future study will require new data collection efforts. Most existing national surveys on black high school and college students lack adequate information on the high school, family, and community experiences of black students and their values and orientations toward higher education.

Policy Implications

The sex and regional differences found in this study suggest that educational administrators and policy makers may need to match more carefully the distinct needs and attributes of students with various colleges and universities. In addition, students and their parents may need to obtain an earlier and better understanding of the diverse and complex nature of post-secondary education, and the different requirements for gaining access to various types of colleges.

A second and more subtle implication from our findings concerns the role of black colleges in recruiting black high school students. It has been noted that black colleges must be better supported financially to compete effectively with predominantly white colleges for black students (Institute for the Study of Education Policy, 1976; Thomas, McPartland and Gottfredson, 1981). Our findings suggest that the ability of black colleges to compete with predominantly white colleges also depends on their success in recruiting black students from predominantly white high schools. Our finding that attending a predominantly white high school was positively related to attending a predominantly white college suggests that recruiters from black colleges must find more effective strategies to increase their pool of applicants from predominantly white high schools. Obviously, implementing such strategies successfully will largely depend on the future level of state and federal support that black colleges receive and their ability to offer more attractive financial aid packages to students. In addition, the quality of these institutions must be improved so that they can better compete with highly selective institutions for students.

Finally, the results from our study reinforce Astin's (1978) point that where students

go to college is a critical issue that requires detailed and systematic investigation. Also, it is important to examine the consequences of students' college choice for their subsequent higher educational achievement and occupational attainment. This issue is particularly crucial for black students because educational attainment is still the major means by which they can improve their social status.

Footnotes

1. The numbers in parentheses are taken directly from the tables (see RSQ change) and indicate the proportion of variance explained by each subgroup for a given model. Reference to one-fifth, one-fourth etc. preceding these numbers represents the fractional proportion of the variance explained. This is derived by dividing the proportion of variance explained by each individual variable by the total percentage of variance explained for each subgroup for a given model. Thus, Table 4 shows that for southern black males, Talent Search accounts for about one-fifth (i.e., .022 ÷ .112 = .199) of the total variance explained in two-year college attendance.

2. During the NLS Base Year and subsequent follow-up surveys, a limited number of questions were asked regarding the type of financial aid that students expected to receive to support their college education. These questions were not included in this analysis because they were inconsistent and unreliable.

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Jomills H. Braddock II is a sociologist of education and a program director at the Johns Hopkins University's Center for Social Organization of Schools. His areas of specialization are race and sex differences in educational and occupational mobility processes, and the study of segregation in schools and adult life. He is currently using the National Longitudinal Survey of the High School Class of 1972 to examine the long-term occupational outcomes of different schooling experiences by blacks and whites, including the possible role of school desegregation experiences. His recent findings have been published in Sociology of Education, Urban Education, Youth and Society and The Urban Review. A recent study of Dr. Braddock's examined sources of racial discrimination or exclusion in professional sports, and is reported in his monograph Institutional Discrimination: A Study of Managerial Recruitment in the National Football League. Dr. Braddock earned his Ph.D. in Sociology at Florida State University in 1973.

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